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SOME PROBLEMS OF THE SCHOOL CHILD

I. THE HEALTH PROBLEM

Good health is of fundamental importance to the child. A strong body is not the highest of man's endowments but it is fundamental in a very special way. Unless a child is alive and healthy, his mental powers cannot come to full fruition. The supreme purpose of Catholic education is indeed spiritual progress, but while fulfilling this high aim it would be unwise to neglect the needs of the body. Mens sana in corpore sano is a good ideal for any educator.

It was once felt that a good deal of retardation in our schools was due to physical defects. Diseased tonsils were blamed when a child failed to be promoted and poor teeth were accepted as an excuse for poor marks. Careful research has failed to substantiate this view. It seems to be a fact, as Westenberger (20) states, that minor physical defects do not have a measurable influence on school work, but it is obviously true that loss of school time through sickness must hamper the school's work with the child. In any case school-health work does not need to be justified by its effects on marks. The health of the child is itself a worthy objective. Only the healthy person can do his full part as a Catholic citizen, and the school would fail in its duty if it were indifferent to the physical needs of the child.

The urgent need for organized health work in the schools is shown by surveys of school children's physical condition. All published reports agree that the American child has a remarkable number of remediable physical defects. The importance of this fact is that if these comparatively slight defects are neglected in childhood they may become vastly more serious in adult life.

Westenberger (20) states that between 60 and 70 per cent of all school children have some physical defects. This is probably a conservative statement. Wood has placed the number at 75 per cent. Such defects are very widely distributed. The largest body of figures which the present writer has seen were the results of New York State examinations for the school year 1923-1923 (10). During that period 595,206 public-school children were examined, representing the school population of the entire state except three cities. In these children 605,028 physical defects were discovered. It may be said in general that results of examinations throughout the country show that this average of one defect per child holds pretty well in almost any school system.

Among these defects probably the one most commonly mentioned is carious teeth. Estimates on the prevalence of this defect have varied very widely. Where the examination is made by a general practitioner, less than half the children are often reported with dental defects. Thus, for example, the New York figures quoted above gave 40.5 per cent as the proportion of children subject to this defect. Where, however, the examination is carried out by a qualified dentist the proportion is enormously higher. Fones (8) quotes a survey made by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor in which 96 per cent of the children were found with defective teeth. From Bridgeport (5) it was reported that in the absence of organized health work it was difficult to find three children out of one hundred with teeth not needing attention.

The proportion of children with eye defects is also variously estimated. The United States Public Health Service (18) in a survey of health work in 100 large cities found that two cities reported them in less than 5 per cent. Terman (17) summarizes a number of older studies showing similar wide variations. Among these conflicting reports the most trustworthy estimate is that of the Eye Sight Conservation Survey (7) based on reports from over 800,000 children. According to this most careful study, 78 per cent of the school children have normal vision, 9 per cent have bad vision corrected by glasses, while the remaining 13 per cent stand in need of such correction.

As in the case of eyes and teeth, so also in regard to hearing, experts vary widely in their estimates on the proportion afflicted.

Terman (17) quotes reports of surveys which place the percentage of school children with this defect at various proportions between 0.5 per cent and 50 per cent. Of course, such wide differences of estimate reflect poorly standardized methods of examination. Fortunately, there is now a method of testing hearing which is quite satisfactory. The audiometer is the instrument which makes possible a comparison between various school populations. A recent survey (2) using this technique showed that 15 per cent of the school population had a degree of defect in at least one ear which made hearing impossible beyond two-fifths of the normal hearing distance.

Estimates on the prevalence of malnutrition depend largely on the methods used to judge the presence of this defect. Heightweight tables have enjoyed considerable popularity, but recent studies (4, 6) seem to show that the question whether or not a child is properly nourished cannot be solved on the basis of weight, height, and age alone. The most reliable method of diagnosing malnutrition now known is the judgment of a competent physician, using some such device as the Dunfermline Scale as a guide. Baker and Blumenthal (4), using this method, found that 25 per cent of the group studied were undernourished.

Another very common defect is diseased or hypertrophied tonsils. Wood (quoted in 3) estimates that over 30 per cent of all children have nasopharyngeal defects. The New York State results give 18.8 per cent of the children as having defective tonsils, while 5 per cent were reported to have defective nasal breathing. Newmayer (14) estimates that 8 per cent of children have defective tonsils.

Besides these common and relatively minor defects there will always be a certain number of children with more serious conditions such as tuberculosis, organic heart disease, or serious orthopedic conditions. The physical care of these children is a particularly urgent matter.

It will be seen from the above figures that the health of the school child is indeed a very pressing problem. It is not a problem which affects a child here and there. It is one which exists with the great majority of all school children and which, for at least a small percentage of them, may be a matter of life or death. School-health work has made enormous strides in the last few years, but very much more remains to be done. The

American Child Health Association recently made a survey (1) of health work in 86 middle-sized cities. In order to secure an objective estimate of the work being done, they used an appraisal form which had been developed by them in cooperation with a number of other health organizations. It was thus possible to express the quality of health work being done by a numerical index. One result of their survey was the discovery that in the cities studied the school health work averaged only 44 per cent of the very moderate and reasonable standards proposed in the appraisal form. While these statistics refer to public schools, there is no reason to believe that the same urgent need of better health work does not exist in Catholic schools as well. It appears, therefore, that the physical condition of the American school child calls most urgently for attention and that his needs are being met only very imperfectly by existing organizations. What are the elements of a good school-health program which would meet the needs of our school population?

Such a program should go back beyond school days and endeavor to reach the pre-school child. Comparatively little is known about the health of the child before he enters school, but one thorough survey (11), which included 4,348 children between the ages of two and seven, showed that less than 5 per cent of them were entirely free from remediable defects. The American Child Health Association survey (1) showed that pre-school health work was one of the most neglected departments of public health. The wide use of child-welfare centers, clinics, and public-health nurses would undoubtedly result in a healthier group of children entering the first grade. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has done splendid work by its annual summer round-up of children about to enter the first grade (12). The object is to have all defects corrected in these children so that they may enter upon their school life with healthy bodies.

If the first point in a health program is to assure ourselves that the entering child is healthy, the second point surely ought to be an effort to prevent the child from being harmed by his school experience. This implies that the school building and its equipment be thoroughly modern and healthy in type (3). Wherever possible, the school itself should be situated on a high and well-drained site. It should have a good-sized yard to provide wholesome play activities for the children. The building

itself should be so oriented that all the rooms will have some sunlight each day, yet no room will have undue glare. It would scarcely seem necessary to add that a school building should be properly protected against fire hazards. Yet the American Child Health Association survey (1) found that in only 37 of 86 cities visited were all the schools inspected properly safeguarded against fire.

The schoolrooms themselves, in which the children spend such a large part of their day, should be planned with the requirements of health in view. It has been found that children cannot see and hear their teacher without straining if they are more than 29 feet away. The width of the classroom is important from the standpoint of lighting. Where the windows are on only one side of the room and where the window space is equal to at least one-fifth of the floor space and the frames of the windows reach to within 6 inches of the ceiling, the room may be as wide as twice the height of the top of the windows from the floor. On account of these facts a schoolroom 32 feet long by 24 feet wide and $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet in height would seem to be a reasonable standard.

An effort should be made to avoid undue glare. For this reason the rooms should be painted in some neutral color such as tan or green, and the paint should have a flat finish without gloss. Blackboards should not be subject to cross light. The floors should be hard wood and should be occasionally oiled. Modern schools are generally equipped with adjustable furniture. There is no magic in adjustable seats and desks, however, and they are quite useless unless the adjustable feature is actually utilized and every chair and desk is suited to the child using it.

Modern standards of sanitation are not always observed in schools. The American Child Health Association survey (1) found that the common drinking cup was still in use in one or more schools in eight cities visited, while 27 cities had at least some outside toilets. In a great many schools the cleanliness of the building left a great deal to be desired. If possible, each child should have his individual locker. Where this is not possible, cloak rooms should be provided large enough so that the clothing of one child can be hung without touching that of another. Drinking fountains should, of course, be of the modern

bubbler type, while paper towels should be provided in the wash

The question of ventilation is one of the most controverted subjects in the field of hygiene. There is a difference of opinion between the advocates of window ventilation and the proponents of mechanical systems. The matter is still in dispute, but the work of the New York State Commission on Ventilation (13) has done a great deal to clear it up. In general it may be said that this commission failed to find any proof of the superiority which had been claimed for mechanical systems. They found that it was entirely possible to ventilate the schoolroom adequately in winter if the radiators were properly placed beneath the windows and if the room was equipped with certain types of window ventilators and exhaust ducts. Even more important than the type of ventilating system is its intelligent use. It is claimed that most mechanical systems are difficult to operate and easily get out of order. A schoolroom with an old-fashioned ventilation system, in which the teacher and the janitor cooperate to keep the temperature between 65 and 68 degrees. would surely be superior to the most carefully equipped modern schoolroom where the ventilation system was carelessly supervised.

Medical examinations have come to play an important part in school hygiene. The origin of this movement in the United States may be traced to the action of Doctor Durgin, Health Commissioner in Boston, who, in 1894, sent physicians into the schools to inspect the children during a diphtheria epidemic. It was not until eleven years later, however, that New York began to examine school children systematically for non-communicable defects. At the present time 42 states have some sort of school medical inspection laws, while a beginning has been made in some of the remaining states. In only 16 of these states, however, is the law mandatory for all children in all districts.

In parochial schools various arrangements are made for securing the benefits of school medical service. Sometimes the schools are forced to bear the expense of this work themselves, and sometimes the city provides it. The latter is more apt to be in the case in those cities which have organized their school-health work under the health authorities rather than under the board of education (18, pp. 260-61).

If these examinations are to bear any fruit, it seems fairly obvious that the physician should spend several minutes with each child. He should be able to have any clothing removed which is necessary for a thorough examination, he should be able to make it in a quiet room, and he should be himself a thoroughly competent physician. How little these conditions are being met is revealed by the American Child Health Association survey (1). Although inspections were being made in 82 out of 86 cities visited, only 35 school systems tried to include all children in the examination every year. In 35 out of 62 cities for which records on this point were available physicians spent less than two minutes with each child. In only 9 out of 65 cities were the children stripped to the waist as a matter of routine. In 24 cities the clothing was not even loosened at the neck. In at least 16 cities the examination took place in the classroom. The same conditions are revealed by the United States Public Health Service survey (18) of the 100 largest cities of the country. It was found that in only 32 of these cities were the heart and lungs examined with clothing removed or partially loosened. The physicians making the examinations were often poorly paid and incompetent. Rogers (15) states that the pay of these physicians ranges from 42 cents to 4 dollars per hour.

It would seem from the above that, although school medical inspection is quite common, it is frequently carried out so carelessly that it is little more than a matter of form. If health inspection is to produce results, it should be made by properly qualified and properly paid specialists. The physician should have plenty of time to devote to each child. The teacher and the child's parents should be present to receive the physician's advice, and it should be possible to remove clothing where necessary.

It would seem quite obvious that medical inspection has little value unless it is followed by an attempt to correct the defects discovered. Obvious as this may seem, there is too little effort in some cities to remove the defects. Rogers (15) quotes figures from two school districts in the same state. In one, 60 per cent of the children were found defective, but only 2 per cent had the defects remedied. In the other, 85 per cent were reported defective and 80 per cent corrected. Probably there are few cities in which more than one-half of the defects discovered are

remedied. This statement seems to be borne out by the findings of the American Child Health Association survey.

Rogers quotes as a contrast the results in the Connecticut State Normal Schools, in which practically 100 per cent of the defects were corrected through a legal regulation requiring this before a student could be accepted. He asks whether it would not be possible to require the correction of physical defects by law for all children, just as vaccination is already required in many places. Such a regulation would seem to be merely the extension of the principle of the school's responsibility for the health of the child.

It is largely the task of the school nurse to interest the children's parents in the treatment of the defects discovered. Where the nurse visits the homes systematically, communicates the results of the examinations to the parents, and arranges for clinical care where necessary, a large proportion of the defects may be corrected.

Besides the physical examination made by the school physician every year, there should be frequent informal inspections for communicable disease. The best way to prevent epidemics is to segregate the child as soon as he shows the first symptoms. Obviously an annual inspection will not help much to solve this problem. It is the responsibility of the teacher and of the school nurse. The teacher should receive some training in normal school to help her detect symptoms of disease.

There are certain classes of children for whom the above measures are not adequate. These are the children whose physical condition is so serious that the educational routine of the classroom becomes entirely secondary and the day is organized entirely around the physical welfare of the child.

The open-air or open-window class made its appearance in the United States in Providence in 1908. It has now become fairly common and is especially valuable in the treatment of tubercular or pre-tubercular children. Such open-air classes are ideally located in a wooded section of the suburbs. The children spend a long day in school. Special warm clothing is worn, while the children have baths and lunches in the school, and follow a special curriculum which includes rest periods and liberal time for games in the open air. Where such a school is impossible the open-window class is a fair substitute (19).

A number of cities have special classes for the child with defective hearing. Such classes should work in close cooperation with an ear specialist and should be able to give instruction in lip reading for the more advanced cases.

Sight-conservation classes have become very popular in the last few years. In these rooms every effort is made to avoid eye strain. The child uses special books with large type, special large blank books, and raised maps. The room itself must be equipped with special lighting, and there must exist the most absolute cooperation between the teacher and the eye specialist.

Classes for cardiac children—that is, children with heart disease—have been developed very successfully in New York City particularly. These classes should be held on the ground floor of the school building. Exercise and play should be carefully supervised to avoid strain. The curriculum itself must be modified to avoid undue drain on the child's resources, while general hygienic measures should receive a great deal of emphasis.

Special treatment of crippled children is also important. A well-rounded program would include bedside instruction for the more advanced cases. For the other children there should be special schools or classrooms equipped with special furniture and providing transportation by bus to and from home. Above all, arrangements should be made for treatment by a qualified specialist wherever there is hope of improvement.

Modern education is not satisfied with correction of defects after they have been found. Prevention is the watchword of the modern child-health movement. Therefore more and more emphasis is being placed on health education in our schools.

The spirit of health education has changed considerably in the last generation. Early courses in this department emphasized the teaching of technical details. In recent years the tendency has been to place more emphasis on actual health habits and to omit, as far as possible, everything which has no immediate bearing on the child's daily life.

Harman (9), in a survey of state courses on health education, finds that most attention is being given to personal hygiene, physiology, and community health. Under personal hygiene such topics were considered as food, the necessity of clinics, the function of rest and exercise, the importance of proper elimination and of the right mental attitude. Physiology was generally taught by taking the various systems of the body in order and explaining their functions in simple language. Community health emphasized preventable diseases and public-health administration. An effort was made to teach the child how disease spread, how this spread may be prevented, and how the community organizes its public-health work. Other topics studied included first aid, baby care, industrial hygiene, and the hygiene of the home, factory, and school.

Although this instruction is undoubtedly very important, modern educators realize that an effort must be made to prevent it from remaining theoretical. The important point is not what the child learns but what he does. Knowledge is sterile

unless it is put into practice.

With this fact in mind, a number of devices are widely used in the schools to aid in inculcating health habits. For instance, some schools use grading schemes like those of the "Modern Health Crusade." Each day, the child, his teacher, or his parents must grade him according to the way he observes certain important health habits, such as taking proper rest, drinking some milk, brushing his teeth, and so forth. Some schools place emphasis on weighing the children regularly and recording the weight on charts. Children are made to take an interest in their weights and, when a child fails to gain, the reasons for it are discussed. In other schools original posters drawn by the children or posters made out of advertisements cut from magazines are used as a teaching device.

In some places the school lunch is used to aid in combating the evil of malnutrition. This may imply anything from a bottle of milk taken by the children in class to complete hot meals.

It is plain that the school-health problem is a most important one and one which no school can afford to neglect. Whether the school is public or parochial, the problem of the child's health is equally urgent. In the past the work of both public and parochial schools has left much to be desired. Let us hope that, for the sake of the rising generation, these shortcomings will be corrected in the near future.

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THE VIRTUES IN THE EFFECTIVE DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER—III

As these notes, descriptive of the character of one's acts, become set in the creature, so that they determine his personality, they are called personality traits. Any combination of them that reach high points in the curve of personality is said to predominate in the average conduct of the person and are called character traits. In fact they determine character, which is said to be that composition of moral qualities with which the personality regularly reacts successfully and desirably to life situations. Conduct is the observable interaction of character in situations and the environment. A tentative set up of personality traits may be made as follows:

Personality Traits

Normal; balanced; neutral; able; right minded.

Abnormal; freakish; erratic; eccentric; fantastic; peculiar; whimsical; foolish; silly; fatuous; ludicrous; variable; volative; weak; fettered; self-contempt; perverse; distorted; inadequate.

Dependable; systematic; orderly; factitious.

Loose; disorderly; superficial; impractical.

Refined; noble; worthy; dignified; leisurely; easy; edifying; gracious.

Coarse; cruel; caddish; innocuous; coquettish.

Simple; restrained; spiritual minded; cov.

Pompous; displayful; flashy; loquacious; glibe; garrulous; boastful; flippant; profuse; gaudy; uppish; bossy: notorious: mysterious.

Ambitious; serious-minded; industrious; wakeful; a c q u i s i t i v e; strenuous; forehanded; attentive to details; expansive; enterorising.

Undependable; senile; aversion to details; mediocre; careless; lazy.

Positive; constructive; dogmatic; intense; vital; forceful; exact; precise; laconic; immobile.

Negative; obstructive; inconsistent; intangible; elusive; shallow; effeminate; evasive; jellified; circumlocutory.

Contented; placid; restive; snug; domestic; conservative; democratic. Irksome; meddlesome; priggish; sullen; fitful; squeamish; discontented; presentimental; radical. Bland; gentle; showing gentility; friendly; altruistic; harmonious; gracious; solicitious; wholesome; appreciative.

Calm; physical self-control; sober; youthful.

Inquisitive: zealous: lively: bright.

Vivacious; swift; sprightly; lithe; brisk; fresh; gay; boyish; girlish; light; graceful; buxom; suave; fanciful.

Clever; dexterous; adroit; quick; sagacious.

Teachable; docile; pliable.

Adaptable; reactive; responsive; elastic; flexible; versatile; precocious; tactful; sportsmanlike; approachable; suggestible.

Courteous; suave; humble; easymannered; neat.

Nice; modish; imitable; prim; mellow; jaunty.

Humorous; facetious; jesting; jolly; normally satisfactory; playful. Wrangling; fractitious; taunting; sinister; loathsome; conventional; clamish; grouchy; feline; cattish; petty; inappreciative.

Physical and mental unrest; impulsive; loud; irrepressible; noisy; vociferous; effusive; nomadic.

Lacking desire to know; empty; dreary; inane; stupid; shy; lukewarm; reactionary; slow; stiff; retiring; dull; flat; insipid.

Common; surly; dogged; primitive; livid; homely; gawky; awkward; uncouth; hoary.

Slow; stoical; stolid; timid.

Stubborn; resisting; impervious; perverse; preoccupied; listless; absent-minded; bold; inscrutable.

Churlish; reticent; repulsive; officious; supercilious; petulent; irrelative; irritable; quarrelsome; contrary; caustic; inaccessible; provocative; slow to fit into new surroundings; brusque; pettish; priggish; anti-pathetic; resenting; obdurate; sour; wilful; egotistic; suspicious.

Rude; crude; conceited; curt; boorish.

Frowsy; unkempt.

Somber; frisky; ridiculous; frolicsome; synical; roguish; waggish; jocose, silly; grotesque.

The well-springs out of which education and the environment develop these natural traits of character and personality are the so-called urges. They are usually listed as follows: Religion; abilities to do things; activities in organizations and teams; adjustment with environment; associations in clubs and societies; appreciations of beauty and art; friendships and loves; knowledge; harmonies with life; possessions; power and influence; recognitions and honors; personal qualities and manners; service to others; philanthropies and patriotisms.

The special characterizations of the potentialities of the mental emotional nature are the substratum for the definite character and personality traits. A tentative list of these may be set up as follows:

The special modifications of the emotions are called mood, temperament, disposition, sentiment. They are conductive of the emotional behavior and growth into the various forms of emotional traits. Mood is defined as a predisposition to certain forms of emotion, due to the residual effects of past emotional behavior. Temperament is a permanent tendency to certain emotional tones. These tendencies are usually listed as follows: sanguine, choleric, melancholic, phlegmatic. In dispositions the cultivated emotions become fixed and determined. A relatively permanent disposition becomes a sentiment; the sentiments are specialized into the abstract, as reverence to parents—and the concrete, as love, science, art, and truth.

These determinations of the emotions give stability to the types of personality and character, which may be classified as follows:

Emotional Types

Normally conditioned; self-con- Not conditioned, or abnormally so. trolled.

Personality Types

- Secure; calm; poised; not hysterical; emotionally self-controlled.
- Fear; fretfulness; anxious; nervous; hysterical; worrisome; phobial; excitable; weird; tremulous; unsteady.
- Serene; peaceable; contrite.
- Angry; given to rage tantrum; fanatical; animated; conflictive.
- Emotionally tender; sympathetic; lovable; affectionate; gregarious; amiable; fatherly; childish.
- Cold-hearted; blunted; callous; frigid; antipathetic.

Modest; sober; restrained; peace of mind; peace of spirit.

Lustful; sentimental; indifferent to shame; disgustful; provocable; amorous; appetative.

Repressed; restful.

Given with curiosity; eager; voluble; restless; argumentative.

Ownership; assertive; nesting; creative.

Regressive; cynical; nomadic; shiftful.

Subjective; depressed; stale; jaded; dissipated; quiet; exhausted.

Explosive; spasmodic; fitful; emphatic.

Elative; enthusiastic; emulative; optimistic; paroxysm.

Glum; impassive; repressed.

Extrovert; hopeful; joyful.

Lonely; sensitive; sad; grieving; reclusive; morose; morbid; gloomy; sorrowful; introvert; melancholic; aberaltive of heart; pessimistic.

Amusing; risible; joyful; happy; buoyant; mirthful; humorous; gladsome. Solemn; upset by trifles; easily disturbed; serious.

The ultimate end of good character, and that which in fact defines its goodness, is the supreme goodness of God. The ultimate norm by which the goodness or badness of an act may be judged is its conformity to the goodness of God. Conformity to the norm is not a matter of knowledge only, but of the whole reactive capacity of the individual. To conceive a beautiful masterpiece of sanctity is not sanctity. The acts of the individual must show forth sanctity, which means that they take on an increasing degree of conformity to the Divine Will in its direction of the culture of human behavior. The proximate norm is the rational nature of the creature taken integrally—in itself—and in its relations with others.

The acts which are indicative of good character cannot, in the present economy, be regulated extrinsically except through the medium of the nature of the creature, through which they can be conveniently produced. The nature of the creature is rational and is created in the image of God. By following the laws of his nature, and through it the guides that religion offers as formative of the dictates of his conscience, the creature lives in conformity with the nature of God and thus tends to his final end. Acceptable traits in human behavior should thus be, in their aggregate, a definite counterpart of the attributes of the infinite goodness of God.

The rational nature, by which the character acts are performed, is to be integrally taken, and thus in this nature are to be comprised the sensitive and vegetative, as well as the intellectual and spiritual parts. To these are to be added the individuating properties, including temperament, inclinations, propensities, special gifts and duties. All of these elements of the creature are to be regarded in relationship with all things, whether equals or superiors in the order of nature and position.

This rational nature is endowed with a will, which gives freedom to the acts of the creature. The acts which the will directs with a previous knowledge are called voluntary acts and also human acts. There are causes that concur in the production of this liberty, such as perfect knowledge or advertence, deliberation and adherence or firmness. There are also causes which affect the freedom of acts and diminish or increase it. There are some that more immediately affect the will, and some the intellect. Error and ignorance indirectly diminish the liberty of the acts of the will by directly compassing the acts of the intellect. The passions directly affect the will by modifying the emotional nature of the creature. Violence directly hinders the free execution of acts and indirectly sways the intellect.

There are others that remotely modify the acts of the will and intellect. These are heredity, temperament, education, habits, and morbid states influencing the mind and body. There are also pathological states which affect the will or destroy it; the usual states of this kind are aboulia or want of will, invincible propensities, neurasthenia, hysteria, epilepsy, hypnotic sleep, and suggestion.

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Under reasonably normal conditions, passions, which psychology designates as emotions, play a major part in the development of character. They modify for good or evil the acts both of the intellect and the will, and their concurrence is so intimate that it is quite impossible to isolate their influence; in fact the emotions personalize knowledge, which never really becomes formative of character until it is given an emotional fringe. They are affections of the mind, which have their origin in the sensitive appetite, induce bodily changes, and are induced by them.

The emotions are endowments which the Creator gave to His rational creatures, and without them the human powers would be deprived of their activity and constancy and would become defenseless, apathetic and inane. They are not in themselves bad, as they are a normal part of the creature's rational nature. They result from the intimate union of the soul with the body. They are the most personal element that the creature derives from his self-culture and are more involved in character development, which induces changes in personality, than even thought and knowledge.

Under the guidance of faith, right reason, the discernment of the subtler values of the spirit, and the command of an enlightened will, they can be forces that lead a man to the height of excellence and self-control, but unmastered and ill-directed they are usually the cause of the many degrees of degradation. Native tendencies in these and proper culture may make the differences of which a popular writer recently spoke, describing a poor boy risen to fame: "A millimeter of difference in ability may mean a mile of difference in fortune and fame."

The emotions have their auxiliary drives, and each has its reverses, and while they may be isolated for purposes of study and analysis, yet in reality they are not mere synthetic compositions, but sparks of life, which seem to come from the same flame.

The emotions at times are directed by the will and are used by it to intensify its acts either for good or evil; and sometimes of their own spontaneity they affect the will and modity its acts. They energize impulse and intensify the motives which lead to the various human activities. Reason may present the objects of choice and the arguments why one should be selected rather than another, but the desires that largely control the actual choice of the will itself arise in the emotions. They are discussed at this length here because, to rearrange the reactions of children so as to induce good conduct results, the teacher must often look deeper into the emotional life of the child and his general systematic condition, and find that poor character formation is mostly due to underlying disturbances or distortion in the emotional nature of the child. The diagnosis of his con-

duct traits, if it is to lead to remedial measures, must search derangements in these well-springs of human acts. This will lead quite necessarily to the conditions of general health, because, tentatively at least, conduct traits are much modified by healthy functioning of the body. In this regard it has been well said, "Sanity and sanitation spring from the same root."

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St. Thomas, following Aristotle, defines eleven emotions, and finds their origin in the two types of sensitive instincts or appetites which he accepted. These two are the concupiscible appetite, by which the creature tends towards the good as simply desirable, and the irascible appetite by which he tends towards a desirable good that is difficult to attain. Under the first species of appetite he classifies love, hate, desire, flight, joy, sadness; and, under the second, hope, desperation, audacity, fear, anger.

The emotions, which are so much involved in the nature and culture of personality and character, are conscious concomitants to instinctive experiences; they are states brought on by the interruption of conscious activity and are participants in the forming of special phases of mental life. In the language of theology and philosophy they are quite generally called passions. In them the instinctive or reflex activity precedes the state of consciousness, as is now generally held. For instance, the instinctive and reflex activities of crying precede the emotional state of conscious sorrow. This explanation of the prenomenon is evidenced especially by the conduct of very young children; their anger appears only after they have become conscious that they are being held from those instinctive bursts of spontaneous acts with which their activities are so replete.

Since the classification of St. Thomas, emotions have been variously analyzed. For the basis of the thought of this discussion the following classification may be accepted as most scientific. In it they are divided into primary or fundamental and secondary or derived. The derived emotions are gratitude, sympathy, pity, remorse, etc.; and the primary are fear, anger, disgust, tenderness, distress, lust, curiosity, subjection, elation, loneliness, appetite, ownership, creativeness, amusement.

When the emotional nature of the child is budding forth, so that it becomes determined to certain types, those who are responsible for his rearing and education are urged to provide certain needs. These needs, supplied in the proper way, will give the emotional complexes a wholesome and desirable set up. These needs may be named as follows: (a) security, (b) freedom or chance to grow, (c) concrete ideals on his own several levels, (d) companionship through which ideals and life's experiences are interpreted. If any of these are not given the growing child, in keeping with the demands of his developing nature, his personality and character qualities will also be misshaped. A major portion of a child's undesirable traits are developed as a result of wrong types of security given at some previous period in life. Fear and anger complexes are the symptoms that reveal the want of this element in his previous growth.

The instincts which are conditioned by the provisions made for needs may be classified in their positive and opposite or negative aspects, as follows: nutrition, distaste, disgust; pugnacity, flight; action, rest; association, isolation; reproduction, modest retreat. These primary instincts are conditioned soon after birth by the environment and their derivatives gradually appear. The derivatives are usually classified as follows: from nutrition, cruelty and acquisitiveness; distaste—loathing, dislike; pugnacity—rivalry, emulation, ambition; flight—shyness, hesitation, submission; action—running, playing; rest—anger, fear; association—affection, love of approval, suggestibility, sociability, constructiveness, vanity, jealousy, envy, human respect; isolation—secretiveness, imitation, sympathy; reproduction—sexual love, parental love, display; retreat—modesty, manners, etc.

Instincts themselves are inherited structural coordinations in the nerve pathways, by which the organism responds to the elementary requirements of itself in relation to the environment, with some degree of consciousness. More primary than the instincts are the automatic and reflex acts by which muscles respond to stimulation, without any intervention of consciousness.

The note of reaction which is designed as feeling, pleasurable or unpleasurable, appears in instinctive movements inasmuch as these produce a favorable or unfavorable condition in the organism. The feeling tone is generally regarded as the "how" of the reaction, and is due to interference with a movement or

There is apparent a relation between the automatic and reflex acts, the primary instincts, and the highest of the cultivated traits which appear in the above classification. For the complete analysis of the forces that lie in the background of the specific traits, a careful consideration should be made of the genesis of at least the more important traits, from these potentialities, through the varied types of the educative and environmental modifications. Such a discussion would lead this paper too far into details, which are, of course, extremely important. Many special treatises are now easily available which diagnose character and provide valuable aids to the teacher who desires to become efficient in this phase of his work. The facts which are stated above, regarding the genesis of character, are presented with the purpose of introducing all the elements that enter into the culture of character. The child's social disabilities are usually traceable to a distorted development of the instinct of pugnacity, inasmuch as it was rather conditioned by suppression than by wholesome games which would have allowed it expression under the guidance of fair play.

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For purposes of visualization and description the above may be set out in the form of a diagram.

On Chart 1 the squares represent the growth and development from within, through means of all the factors and forces in the environment. The environment develops from without, and the growth proceeds from within. The growth is from the potentialities, etc., that are latent in the new-born creature, composed of soul and body, to the qualities in character and personality, usually called habits or virtues.

The environment acts upon the creature and produces the reaction of thought, word, deed or omission, as they are classically designated. The external forces acting through these reactions lead the creature to the development of acts and habits, with a degree of precision, definiteness, and security, it should be observant of just what the reactions of the child show from day to day, as a result of instruction and activity. The strain of character shown in the type of reactions is traceable through the several square to the latest patentialities.

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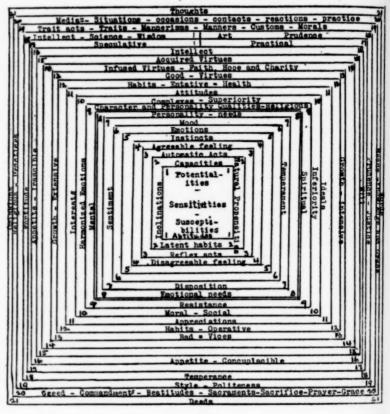


CHART I

Generally the modification of a child's type of responses requires a scrutiny and modification of some deeper and more generalized potency.

As the strain is traced inwardly it will be generalized and unified in some emotion that has become inharmonious in its power to promote right conduct elements, while undesirable emotional complexes are traceable in the family history to a wrong conditioning of instinctive behavior.

The specific appearances of the various responses are particularized and may be analyzed into numerous characteristics. These are the only thorough-going evidences or close-ups an observer has of what is going on in character development itself. The individual child may often be excused on the ground that, whatever his behavior, he means all right, or that his intentions are good. Religiously and spiritually there are grounds on which he may be called righteous.

The efficiency of his, however, is weakened by the jarring and straining that results upon the environment, and indeed also upon himself, through inapt or inadequate trait acts. To have any certain degree of security in the outcome of training, the changes in the observable trait acts should be measured, and, as far as possible, accurately, because desirable conformity in these react upon the sources of moral conduct within.

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THE ASSIMILATION OF CATHOLIC IDEALS THROUGH THE EIGHT BEATITUDES

The Eighth Beatitude: Blessed are they who suffer persecution for justice' sake, for theirs is the kingdom of Heaven.

Objective in teaching this Beatitude: To help the student develop a deep sense of reverence for God, an utter dependence on Him, and a conviction of her individual nothingness apart from God.

Exploration and preparation: The pre-test, the approach to the subject in this unitary method of treatment, may stimulate the student's thinking in such channels as:

- A. What considerations have led you in the past to feelings of reverence toward God?
- 1. Do your thoughts of Christ, the Son of God, center around His Divinity or His Humanity?
- 2. Do you think often of Him as God the Son, Second Person of the Blessed Trinity?
- 3. In which of these conceptions is your sense of reverence deeper? What significance has this fact for you?
- B. What considerations have made you feel most strongly your sense of dependence on God?
 - 1. Has this sense been deepened by your school experience?
- 2. If you feel this sense is still imperfect, what suggestions can you make for deepening it?
- C. What results in your life would be likely to follow a real understanding of the reverence you owe God and your utter insignificance apart from Him:
 - 1. In your attitude toward the teachings of your religion?
- 2. In your attitude toward constituted authority: (a) in civil life? (b) In the school? (c) In the home?
 - 3. In your attitude toward your neighbor?
 - 4. In the development of your character?
- D. What occurs to you as the most helpful way or ways of attaining a clear understanding of your relationship to God?

¹ From the teaching technique of the unit, grateful acknowledgment is made to Prof. H. W. Morrison of the University of Chicago, whose unit plan of development has been followed.

E. What do you understand by "suffering persecution for justice' sake"?

Presentation: The setting: The Sermon on the Mount. Christ's gift to the world: Himself, meek and humble of heart, to teach the true value and proportion of things. His power: to satisfy fully the cravings of the human heart which is wholly reverent and dependent upon Him and utterly distrustful of itself apart from God.

A. The necessity of humility for the life of the soul. "Learn of me. . . ." (Matthew XI, 29.) The evil of pride: its appropriation to self of the glory which God alone merits. Definition of humility: "a moral virtue that inclines us, from reverence toward God, to abase ourselves and keep ourselves in the place that we see is due us." (Marmion, Christ the Ideal of the Monk, p. 220.) God's rewards to the humble soul: an inflow of grace, a liberality of Divine gifts. The place of humility in the spiritual life.

B. Two attitudes basic to humility: (1) a deep sense of reverence for God and absolute dependence upon Him; (2) a conviction of our own nothingness apart from God.

1. Reverence toward God: the principal reason and motive for self-abasement, for true adoration. The contrast between creature and Creator.

2. Knowledge of our utter nothingness: supernatural in cause and effect. Derived from learning the true value and proportion of things as related to God.

C. Mistaken idea of humility: to take delight in thoughts of being persecuted; to like to differ from one's associates; to be indifferent to human affection and appreciation; to despise the things of the world and to be indifferent to the judgment of men.

D. True idea of humility: to bear misunderstanding and reproach because of fidelity to conscience and to God. Necessity of understanding the attitude of the world toward the teachers, the disciples of truth, or the upholders of a higher standard of right.

E. Value of understanding the relationship of natural and spiritual laws. Mistaken views of interrelation of religion and success in worldly matters. The fruits of religion: union with God and victory over sin, not necessarily success in temporal matters.

F. Relationship of Eighth Ideal to the other Ideals: its dependence upon the other seven Ideals. Close relationship to Christian self-control.

The pre-test may show such grasp of the points presented that much of the material under "Presentation" may be omitted. The suggestions given in earlier papers are applicable here. Only such information should be given as is required to correct faulty or false impressions as shown by the pre-test, and to stimulate research and thought. A definite objective, to arouse the desire of the student to solve the problems presented, suggests the best method of procedure. Groups differ so markedly in their willingness to contribute to discussions and pursue investigations that the instructor must determine the treatment most conducive to results.

Many of the books and periodicals referred to in the former articles are helpful in clarifying this ideal. Abbot Marmion's Christ the Ideal of the Monk has an admirable chapter on humility. Valuable, too, are his Christ the Life of the Soul and Christ in His Mysteries. The eleventh chapter of the latter treats powerfully the Divinity of Christ. Father Maturin's books lose none of their helpfulness in providing material relating directly or indirectly to the ideal. The function of the teacher in implanting the seeds of humility in the mind of the child is ably treated by Father Johnson under "Notes on the Teaching of Religion" in the Cath. Educ. Review, 26:553 (November, 1928). The Eighth Annual Religious Survey of the University of Notre Dame is a publication worthy of careful study by educators. A questionnaire from the Queen's Work suggested live topics of interest to secondary students.

One treatment of the assimilative period of the work on this ideal may assume the following form:

Assimilation (each student has a mimeographed copy of this section):

In our readings and activities this month, we shall seek a grasp of the ideal of Christian humility through an understanding of the reverence we owe God, through a conviction of our dependence on Him, and our absolute nothingness apart from God. We shall try to understand the nature of humility, its necessity, its place in our spiritual development. We shall consider, too, pride and its evils. Knowing, as we doubtless do, something of the

intimate relationship of natural and spiritual laws, we shall seek a clearer insight into the solution of certain problems which face us now and others which will doubtless await us as we complete the secondary stage in our education.

Necessarily we shall correlate the ideal of Christian humility with the ideals already considered. We shall seek the dependence of this ideal of Christian living upon self-control, detachment from the things of earth, Christian fortitude, a harmoniously developed spiritual nature, an unfailing charity, a Christ-like purity of faith, of mind and heart, a peace founded on justice and truth. This eighth ideal might be considered the sum total of Christian conduct, since he who possesses it must possess all the other virtues.

We shall see, too, how essential is the determination to begin at once such practices and the formation of such habits as will, with God's grace, help us to acquire the virtues which distinguish a "child of God." This attempt at correlating the ideas and practices suggested in the consideration of the various ideals ought, if faithfully and prayerfully done, to bear a rich harvest whose fruit will be manifest in a truly Christian life.

We shall consider the eighth ideal in its bearing on the six vital relationships of life:

A. In my relationship with God, if I have a true sense of reverence for Him and absolute dependence upon Him, what shall be my attitude—

1. Toward striving to be truly humble?

(a) How has my consideration of the Humanity of Christ given me a clearer understanding of the Divinity of Christ, the Son of God, the Second Person of the Blessed Trinity?

(b) Which ideals have given me the clearest insight into this great truth?

(c) What considerations have been most helpful in giving me a really personal notion of God?

2. Toward striving to give Him the adoration which is due Him? Abbot Marmion (Christ the Ideal of the Monk, 223) defines adoration as "the acknowledgment of our inferiority before Divine perfection, of our absolute dependence in the face of the infinite Sovereignty."

(a) Do I experience a sense of this inferiority and dependence in my thoughts of God?

(b) What evidence, if any, have I that this year's consideration of God and the things of God have given me an increased love for and confidence in Him?

(c) Has it given me a fear of God because of His majesty,

His power, His justice?

- (d) Does my contemplation of what God is and what He does for us deepen my sense of reverence and dependence? Also my confidence in and love for Him?
- (e) Does my fear of God make me avoid sin? If so, is this feeling giving way in part to love of God as the motive of my actions? What books or considerations have helped me most in this respect?
- (f) What connection do I find between reverence toward God and submission of my will to God? Do I see how a sense of dependence on God will make me truly unselfish? How it will make me give up my will, the source of my pride?

What readings have helped me to understand this point?

(g) What effect does my understanding of original and personal sin have upon my pride—

(1) In making me distrust my judgment?

- (2) In making me less inclined to dominate others?
- (3) In making me submit my will to that of my parents? teachers? superiors?
- (4) In making me endure patiently humiliations, affronts, snubs and insults?
- (h) What help did I derive from the consideration of the peace of Christ and conformity to God's will, as suggested in the reflections on the Seventh Ideal?
- (i) What defects of character listed under the discipline of the will in the Seventh Ideal, am I working honestly to overcome? Of how many was I conscious before last month's consideration? What plans have I for overcoming my defects?
- 3. Toward recognizing my own nothingness apart from Him? In my self-complacency over any qualities—intellectual, moral or physical—I may possess:
- (a) Do I ascribe to myself any success I may have achieved intellectually? morally? physically?
- (b) Do I fail to acknowledge or make light of any special gift I may possess because I do not wish to recognize my indebtedness to God for that gift?

- (c) Do I in theory acknowledge that all comes from God, but by my actions and self-sufficiency show the emptiness of my assertion?
- (d) Do I accept failure in undertakings, in my studies, without attributing the fault to God or to another? Am I, for instance, willing to ascribe a failure in an examination to personal laziness, inattention, or carelessness? Is not my tendency that of assigning it to God's failure to endow me with greater mental gifts? to the failure of the saints to obtain the favor? to the poor teaching qualities of my instructor?
- (e) Is my attitude that of the Pharisee, a pose caused by my consciousness of my own worth and perfection?
- (f) Are my thanks to God for favors received tinged with a sense of contempt for others? with a desire to obtain His approbation of my conduct and achievement?
- (g) What is the best proof I have seen of the deadly nature of pride, preventing, as it does, God from giving Himself to us?
- (h) What practical lessons for me has this consideration of pride?
 - 4. Toward recognizing supernatural gifts-
- (a) How do I acknowledge the graces I have received in being made a child of God? in receiving the light of faith?
- (b) Am I quick to attribute all good to God, all evil to myself?
- (c) As a child of God, what acknowledgment should I make of His gifts: His Son, the mysteries of His life, the Church, the sacraments, grace, the gifts of the Holy Ghost?
- (d) What practical application of this realization can I make for the remainder of my high school career? for the future?
 - 5. Toward choosing His mother as my model-
 - (a) In humility? (Magnificat: Luke I, 46-55.)
 - (b) In purity?
 - (c) In modesty?
 - (d) In submission to God's will?
 - (e) In Christ-like charity and consideration of others?
 - (f) In returning to God all the glory for His works?
 - 6. Toward accepting His Church as His visible representative-
- (a) In working to spread the Kingdom of God on earth? in modeling my life on that of its Divine Founder? in understand-

ing its teachings so that I may spread this knowledge? in answering objections and meeting criticism of its teaching?

(b) To what extent have I endeavored to practice the suggestions for cultivating a right attitude toward Christ's Church? (See the Sixth Ideal on this point.)

(c) What objections, if any, have I met this year against my religion? What were the prevalent ones? To what extent have I met them?

(d) What resolutions, if any, have I formed as a result of this experience? In what ways, if any, have the Sixth and Seventh Ideals in particular been helpful to me? Do I know where to find information on religious questions of today?

7. Toward using the means to attain Christ-like humility: prayer, and meditation on the life of Christ, particularly on His

humility?

(a) To what extent have I put into practice the suggestions for cultivating the habit of the Presence of God (Sixth Ideal)?

(b) Which suggestions have been most helpful? Which am I deliberately trying to make habitual?

(c) What considerations have made me see most clearly this year the need for developing more deeply the spirit of prayer?

(d) What is the chief obstacle in the way of developing a deep reverence for God, which will make me truly humble? Is it pride? Do I think of myself, my littleness, my unworthiness, or do I try to concentrate on the greatness, the purity, the humility of Christ, the Son of God?

(e) If I have honestly tried to meditate on the passion or on other phases of the life of Christ, what results have I obtained? What difficulties have I found? Have the Stations of the Cross

been an aid to me in my efforts to meditate?

(f) What have I learned this year about prayer that I did not know before? What definite benefits do I feel I have derived from prayer? Have I prayed more for temporal favors than in earlier years? for conversions? for a knowledge of my vocation?

(g) What thought would impel me to pray for the true spirit

of reverence toward God?

(h) What progress, if any, have I made this year in acquiring the habit of daily Communion? What are my strongest reasons for wishing to become a daily communicant? What obstacles prevent me? What obstacles will interfere with this habit during the summer vacation? in the plans I have made for next year?

(i) To what extent has our work on the Ideals strengthened my ideals of conduct? my faith? my conception of true womanhood? true manhood?

B. In my home life, what significance will a right understanding of my relationship to God and my own individual nothingness have upon my attitude:

1. Toward my parents-

(a) In recognizing their authority as the representatives of God? in giving them the assistance I am able to give them?

(b) In overcoming my tendency toward worldliness? (See Section B under Fifth Ideal.)

(c) In performing faithfully and cheerfully the tasks assigned me that will bring me no recognition or public notice?

(d) In refraining from an insistence that my opinion be considered? in refraining from sarcastic comments and open or secret criticism of their decisions or actions?

(e) In not offering excuses when I am blamed or my actions are misinterpreted?

(f) In utilizing every opportunity for practicing the virtue of humility?

2. Toward my brothers and sisters-

(a) In yielding to their wishes and considering their tastes?

(b) In desiring to give them such opportunities as I have not had?

(c) In overcoming a tendency to surliness and discontent with conditions at home?

(d) In repressing feelings of anger? (See Seventh Ideal under "discipline of the heart to love God.")

(e) In giving them the example they should find in an older sister, an example of prudence, restraint, simplicity, courage, unselfishness, loyalty?

(A reconsideration of the points in the Second and the Fifth Ideals will stress our responsibility in our home relationships.)

C. In my intercourse with friends and acquaintances, how will a clear understanding of the proper relationship of Creator and creature affect my judgment in the following cases:

1. What instances can I recall of people who delight in being persecuted—

(a) By arousing comment and criticism through their tactlessness and lack of common sense in flaunting their personal religion?

(b) By not understanding that religion should make the possessor radiate the virtues of Christ, rather than arouse hostility?

- (c) By appealing tactlessly to the world's dislike of the supernatural?
 - (d) By differing from associates on all conceivable points?
 - (e) By taking pleasure in accentuating this difference?
- (f) By flaunting their indifference to human appreciation and human affection?
- (g) By stressing their scorn for the world and the judgments of men?
- (h) What has been my reaction to such persecution and the conduct provoking it, conduct so at variance with Christ's teaching: "Learn of Me for I am meek and humble of heart"?
- 2. If I see that the real meaning of "suffering persecution for justice' sake" is to bear misunderstanding and reproach because of fidelity to one's conscience and to God,
- (a) What will be my attitude when I am faced with possible humiliation? (2) Repulse? (3) Scorn? (4) Calumny? (5) Ridicule? (6) Reviling? (7) Injury?
- (b) What will be my attitude toward desiring esteem? (2) Popularity? (3) Praise? (4) Honors—school, social, personal honors of any kind? (5) Preference over friends, associates, classmates? (6) Notice? (7) Approval of my equals? my superiors?
- (c) What practical resolutions from this reflection can I draw for the rest of my high school career? for my life outside of school?
- (d) What illustrations of the mistaken idea of "suffering persecution for justice' sake" have I found in the reading for this month? in the reading lists on the other Ideals? What illustrations of the true meaning?
- (e) What illustrations of the true and the false interpretation have I found among friends and acquaintances?
- 3. How will the knowledge of self, its possibilities and limitations, gained in part from the thoughtful study of the Christian ideals of life, help me in solving certain problems confronting the

girl of today as, for example, the problem of selecting my life's work and preparing for it?

(1) What is my reaction to the possible choice of marriage as my vocation?

(2) What is my reaction to the possible choice of the religious life as my vocation?

(3) If the religious life has for me no attraction, what definite ideas have I on the following important questions:

(a) What qualities am I justified in expecting in a man whom I would want to marry?

(b) What qualities is he justified in expecting in me?

(c) What favorable results, if any, have I noted in mixed marriages? What unfavorable results, if any?

(d) The Religious Bulletin of the University of Notre Dame published a study of the Modern Boy and the Modern Girl that was illuminating. The "earmarks" of the Modern Boy as listed in this study were: (1) sophistication, (2) mental inertia, (3) lack of discrimination, (4) physical decrepitude, (5) softening of the memory, (6) cramping of the imagination, (7) inaccuracy, (8) dishonesty, (9) recklessness, (10) selfishness, (11) flippancy, (12) frivolity, (13) religious antipathy, (14) self-satisfaction.

Does an honest analysis of some of my boy friends reveal any or all of these characteristics?

Does an honest analysis reveal the presence of any of these traits in my girl friends? in myself?

(e) What trait of character do I most admire in a boy? most dislike?

4. What justification, if any, can I find for a girl's indulging in smoking? in drinking? in swearing? in lying? What to me seems the best antidotes for such practices?

5. What can I do to discourage the use of improper stories and objectionable language?

6. How can I encourage attendance at good dramas, moving pictures and approved places of amusement?

7. What to me seems the best way of promoting temperance in drink among young people?

8. If the consideration of Our Lady as Virgin and Mother acts as a strong deterrent against indulgence of the type mentioned in 4 and 5, how can I make her influence a living force in my

life? What habits will be vital for me to form? Which do I will to form?

9. Will the example of my favorite saint help me to acquire these habits?

D and E. In my relationship with civil life and industry, what bearing will a true conception of Creator and creature have on my outlook on life?

- 1. Am I able to see how reason and conscience will war against inclination
 - (a) In my relations with a superior?
- (b) In my intercourse with business associates? (See the Fifth Ideal, D and E, for definite standards for such relationships.)
 - (c) In the demands of the position or profession?
- (d) In my struggle against yielding to the allurements of the world?
- 2. If I see that fidelity to conscience and to God may militate against my success in a certain position or profession, what plan of procedure should be mine?
- 3. Have I known of failures in business or in one's profession assigned on the ground of adherence to one's faith or conscience, when failure was in reality due to personal traits or inefficiency?
- 4. Have I seen or heard of a person's depending for success in industry on frequenting the Sacraments and in prayer and failing to exercise her mental endowment? of a person's slighting work and preparations for advancement, trusting only to prayer?
- 5. Do I see that the cause of such failures is unfaithfulness to religion, which compels a faithful discharge of duty at all times?
- 6. How do such examples link up with the misuse of God's gifts that I have seen in high school?
- 7. What illustrations from reading or every day life show that the grace of God and prayer do not remedy a foolish act done in the service of God but violating the laws of nature?
- 8. What are the most striking proofs I have heard or read of the truth that natural and spiritual laws go hand in hand?
- F. Has my use of leisure time any special bearing, (a) on increasing or lessening my reverence for God, (b) on stressing my dependence on Him, (c) on emphasizing my utter nothingness apart from God?
- 1. What part has my reading played in each of these divisions?

(a) What has been the effect on my spiritual development of

my general reading in the past?

(b) Which books read in connection with our study of the Ideals this year have, (x) increased my reverence? (y) stressed my dependence? (z) emphasized my nothingness apart from God?

- (c) What books or periodicals read in connection with the ideals of (a) detachment, (b) self-control, (c) Christian fortitude, (d) training for spiritual things, (e) Christian charity, (f) purity of mind and heart, (g) peace, have this year influenced most deeply my thoughts? my actions? List books and articles under each ideal. (Note carefully the sections on reading under the Fourth, the Fifth, the Sixth and the Seventh Ideals and try to correlate the thoughts with the Eighth Ideal.
- 2. What part have pleasures had in the development of x? of y? of z? (See 1 b.)
- (a) Has my attendance at dramas or moving pictures affected my attitude toward x? toward y? toward z?
- (b) Have social gatherings affected in a marked way such attitude?
- 3. If the consideration of the use of leisure time, especially the suggestions given under the Fifth and Sixth Ideals, has made me feel the significance of leisure hours, what practical resolutions ought I to make for the present? for the future?

Organization: The scope of the Eighth Ideal, inclusive as it is of the other Ideals, presents an almost unlimited range of material for organization. A fair test of mastery might be the requirement that the student, without assistance from instructor or notes, treat adequately the following points:

State clearly to what extent your understanding of the reverence due God and your sense of dependence on Him have been deepened by your consideration of the Eighth Ideal?

Discuss briefly but pointedly the following: (a) the nature of humility, (b) its foundation, (c) its place in the spiritual life. Distinguish between true and false humility. What change in your attitude toward humility as a vital factor in your spiritual life has resulted from your work on the Ideals?

Explain concisely: "To suffer persecution for justice' sake."
What are the strongest reasons you would give for correlating

the course in Senior English with the assimilation of the Christian ideals of life, as you have done this year?

What are the strongest reasons you would give against such correlation?

What comparison would you draw between the results, as far as you can estimate them, of the supplementary reading done in connection with your third-year work in English and the work done this year?

What evaluation of the work on Ideals would you give a student who will enter the senior class next autumn?

If you feel the work you have done this year in the assimilation of Christian ideals has borne fruit, what results seem to you most noteworthy: (1) intellectually, (2) morally, (3) spiritually? Which Ideal has been most significant to you: (1) through its development, (2) through the appended readings?

Recitation and discussion: Student reports on topics selected

from the assimilative matter.

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28, 32, 34, 39, 44; ix:2-6; xi:29; xviii:2-4. Whosoever therefore shall humble himself . . .; xix:28-29; xx:17-28 (service), 1-16; xxiii:13-33 (the eight maledictions, the counterpart of the Eight Beatitudes); xxvi:63-68; Mark ii:5-9; x:35-45; Luke i:46-55. My soul doth magnify the Lord; v:20-24; xvii:13; xviii:10-14 (Pharisee and Publican); xiv:8-11 (Christ's advice to those invited to a banquet); John i:18; iii:16; iv:5-29; vi:37-40; ix:41; x:28-33; xiii:4-16 (the washing of the feet of the disciples); xiv:31.

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CONSTITUTIONAL LIMITATIONS OF THE LEGISLA-TIVE POWER TO COMPEL EDUCATION

III. THE STATE

1. The police power, under which the education and employment of minors are regulated, is not beyond interference; the legislative judgment in its exercise is not final but is subject to review by the courts; and the power as a whole is limited by the supreme law of the land: the Constitution of the United States.

Some courts appear to have held the contrary of this proposition.

State v. Shorey, 48 Ore. 396, 86 Pac. 881, 24 L. R. A. N. S. 1121, held: "As to minors, the state . . . may exercise unlimited supervision and control over their contracts, occupations and conduct, and the liberty and right of those who assume to deal with them."

State v. Clottu, 33 Ind. 409, held: "The subject (of the relation between parent and child) has always been regarded as within the purview of legislative authority. How far this interference should extend is a question, not of constitutional power for the courts, but of expediency and propriety, which it is the sole province of the legislature to determine. The judiciary has no authority to interfere with this exercise of the legislative judgment; and to do so would be to invade the province which by the constitution is assigned exclusively to the lawmaking power."

Orr v. State, 70 Ind. A. 242, 123 N. E. 473, held: "It is not the province of the courts to determine generally what conditions and exigencies will warrant the state in seizing the children of its citizens. To determine and declare the general policy of the state on this subject is a legislative function which can not be delegated to the courts."

Even the Supreme Court of the United States has been cited in support of the absolutism of the police power of the several states. In *Barbier* v. *Connolly*, 113 U. S. 27, 5 S. Ct. 357, 28 L. Ed. 923, the court said: "Neither the (Fourteenth) Amendment—broad and comprehensive as it is—nor any other amendment, was designed to interfere with the power of the state, sometimes termed its police power, to prescribe regulations to promote the health, peace, morals, education, and good order of the people, and to legislate so as to increase the industries of the state, develop its resources, and add to its wealth and prosperity."

If this declaration opened wide, or left wide open, the avenues of the police power, these avenues have since been narrowed.

In Connolly v. Union Sewer Pipe Co., 184 U. S. 540, the court said: "As the Constitution of the United States is the supreme law of the land, anything in the Constitutions or statutes of the states to the contrary notwithstanding, a statute of a state, even when avowedly enacted in the exercise of its police power, must vield to that law. No right granted or secured by the Constitution of the United States can be impaired or destroyed by a state enactment, whatever may be the source from which the power to pass such enactment may have been derived."

In Lochner v. New York, 198 U. S. 45, the court said: "It must of course be conceded that there is a limit to the valid exercise of the police power of the state. There is no dispute concerning this general proposition. Otherwise the Fourteenth Amendment would have no efficacy and the legislatures of the states would have unbounded power, and it would be enough to say that any piece of legislation was enacted to conserve the morals, the health or the safety of the people; such legislation would be valid, no matter how absolutely without foundation the claim might be. The claim of the police power would be a mere pretext-become another and delusive name for the supreme sovereignty of the state to be exercised free from constitutional restraint."

In Meyer v. Nebraska, 262 U. S. 390, 43 S. Ct. 625, 67 L. Ed. 1042, 29 A. L. R. 1446, the court said: "The established doctrine is that this liberty may not be interfered with, under the guise of protecting the public interest, by legislative action which is arbitrary or without reasonable relation to some purpose within the competency of the state to effect. Determination by the legislature of what constitutes proper exercise of the police power is not final or conclusive but is subject to supervision by the courts. Lawton v. Steele, 152 U.S. 133, 137."

Matters concerning the custody of minors are not settled, a priori, by the legislature, but a posteriori by the courts.

"The question of the custody of minors and their illegal restraint has always been recognized as a judicial question to be determined by the courts. *Pom. Eq.* No. 1304. That it is the function of the courts to decide issues of this kind has been held in this state by unbroken authority. . . . " *Tillman* v. *Tillman*, 26 L. R. A. N. S. (S. C.) 781.

A judgment regarding the exercise of the police power in the matter of education, even if it is a legislative judgment approved by a state supreme court, or the judgment of the sovereign people of a state—when it deals with liberty, it is subject to review, and eventually to condemnation, by the Supreme Court of the United States.

In patriotic era of the World War, it was the judgment of the legislatures of Ohio, Iowa and Nebraska that the public safety and welfare required the prohibition of the teaching of the German language in the grades. The laws enacted were upheld by the highest state courts. The Supreme Court of Nebraska said concerning the issue: "The salutary purpose of the statute is clear. The legislature had seen the baneful effects of permitting foreigners, who had taken residence in this country, to rear and educate their children in the language of their native land. The result of that condition was found to be inimical to our own safety. . . . The enactment of such a statute comes reasonably within the police power of the state. . . . In the legislative mind the salutary effects of the statute no doubt outweighed the restriction upon the citizens generally, which, it appears, was a restriction of no real consequence." (107 Neb. 657.)

But the Supreme Court of the United States held that the power claimed by these states represented an arbitrary and unreasonable interference with the liberty of teachers, of parents and of children. Meyer v. Nebraska, supra.

In 1922, the people of Oregon judged it proper and necessary, in the interest of good citizenship, by initiative measure, to compel attendance of all children at the public schools.

But the Supreme Court of the United States solemnly annulled the act, as a wrong and ruthless attempt to interfere with rights of liberty and property. Pierce v. Society of Sisters, supra.

On the authority of the two cases just cited, *People* v. *Stanley*, supra, holds that the state cannot require an education beyond the essentials necessary for good citizenship:

"If parents can have their children taught what they please, they can refuse to have them taught what they think harmful, barring what must be taught, i.e., the essentials of good citizenship. What these are, the board of education of each district, primarily, and the courts ultimately, must decide. So whether any study is immoral or inimical to the public welfare, the board primarily, and the courts ultimately, must decide."

"Children can not be compelled to take instruction not essential to good citizenship."

2. The fundamental principles underlying the state's action in the matter of the education of children are the same as those underlying its action in the matter of custody. Custody implies education, and education presupposes custody. In the matter of custody, the state may interfere only where it is imperatively necessary; it has no other warrant but imperative necessity to interfere by compulsory measures in the matter of education.

"Whenever (for example) it is found that a father is guilty of gross ill treatment or cruelty towards his infant children; or that he is constant habits of drunkenness and blasphemy, or low and gross debauchery; or that he professes atheistical or irreligious principles; or that his domestic associations are such as tend to the corruption and contamination of his children; or that he otherwise acts in a manner injurious to the morals or interests of his children; in every such case the Court of Chancery will interfere and deprive him of the custody of his children and appoint a suitable person to act as guardian, and to take care of them, and to superintend their education. (But it is only in cases of gross misconduct that paternal rights are interfered with.)" Story, Equity Jurisprudence, II, sec. 1341.

"The father, and on his death the mother, is generally entitled to the custody of the infant children, inasmuch as they are their natural protectors, for maintenance and education. But the courts of justice may, in their sound discretion, and when the morals, or safety, or interests of the children strongly require it, withdraw the infants from the custody of the father or mother,

and place the care and custody of them elsewhere." Kent, Commentaries, II, 205.

Consideration of the welfare of a child will not suffice to take custody away from parents who are decent and able to furnish the necessities for the child, "although the child's welfare and prospects in life might be bettered thereby." Schouler, Domestic Relations. No. 744.

"What is proper parental care? The best and kindest parents would differ in the attempt to solve this question. No two scarcely agree; and when we consider the watchful supervision which is so unremitting over the domestic affairs of others, the conclusion is forced upon us that there is not a child in the land who could not be proved by two or more witnesses to be in this Ignorance, idleness, vice, are relative terms. sad condition. Ignorance is always preferable to error, but at most is only venial. It may be general or it may be limited. Though it is sometimes said that 'idleness is the parent of vice,' yet the former may exist without the latter. It is strictly an abstinence from labor or employment. If the child performs all its duties to parents and to society, the state has no right to compel it to labor. Vice is a very comprehensive term. Acts wholly innocent in the estimation of many good men would, according to the code of ethics of others, show fearful depravity. What is the standard to be? What extent of enlightenment, what amount of industry, what degree of virtue, will save from the threatened imprisonment? In our solicitude to form youth for the duties of civil life, we should not forget the rights, which inhere both in parents and children. The principle of the absorption of the child in, and its complete subjection to, the despotism of the state is wholly inadmissible in the modern civilized world." People v. Turner, supra.

"Before the state can be substituted for the right of the parent, it must affirmatively be made to appear that the parent has forfeited his natural and legal right to the custody and control of his child, by reason of his failure, inability, neglect or incompetency to discharge the duty and thus to enjoy the right." Mill v. Brown, 31 Utah 473, 88 Pac. 609, 120 Am. St. Rep. 935.

The juvenile court law "should not be held to extend to cases where there is merely a difference of opinion as to the best

course to pursue in rearing a child." Lindsay v. Lindsay (1913), 257 Ill. 328, 100 N. E. 892, 45 L. R. A. N. S. 908, Ann. Cas. 1914A 1222.

"Every statute which is designed to give protection, care and training to children, as a needed substitute for parental authority and performance of parental duty, is but a recognition of the duty of the state, as the legitimate guardian and protector of children where other guardianship fails." Commonwealth v. Fisher, 213 Pa. 48, 62 Atl. 198, 5 Ann. Cas. 92.

"We have not undertaken in New Jersey to establish the policy that the state is to take care of children; that boards, however efficient, and however well able to provide homes for children, can displace and disregard parental authority and parental love. The institution of the family in New Jersey is still regarded as sacred—the family of the poor man as well as the family of the rich man." Ex parte Hoines (N. J. Ch., 1920), 112 Atl. 613.

3. The state has the right to make compulsory a minimum amount of education—an amount sufficient for essential good citizenship and the essential welfare of the child. This the state may do, and under certain circumstances must do, in order to protect the rights of the child and to prevent damage to itself.

This requires no citation.

The constitutionality of compulsory education laws has been but rarely questioned, because heretofore the states, almost without exception, have required only an ordinary elementary education.

Compulsory education laws, as a supposed invasion of parental rights, have been twice tested. In both cases, constitutionality was established. The children were under 14 and had not acquired an elementary education. State v. Bailey, 157 Ind. 324, 61 N. E. 730, 59 L. R. A. 435; State v. Jackson, 71 N. H. 552, 53 Atl. 1021, 60 L. R. A. 739.

In the case of Miller v. State (Ind. App. 1922), 134 N. E. 209, where the law required a child over 7 and under 16 to attend school, it was held that the child, having completed the grades before 16, could not continue to attend the grades, but must

attend high school. The constitutional question was not raised, and the court did not undertake to decide it.

4. The state may not compel attendance at school, if a child is otherwise educated.

It was not so held in State v. Counort, 69 Wash. 361, 124 Pac. 910. The law required attendance at a public or private school, unless the child had attained proficiency in the usual studies. The child in this case was being instructed at home by the parent. The court held: "We do not think that the giving of instruction by a parent to a child, conceding the competency of the parent fully to instruct the child in all that is taught in the public schools, is within the meaning of the law 'to attend a private school.'"

But it was so held in several other cases, notably the following.

Commonwealth v. Roberts, 159 Mass. 372, 34 N. E. 402.

"The great object of these provisions of the statutes has been that all the children shall be educated, not that they shall be educated in any particular way. To this end public schools are established, so that all children may be sent to them unless other sufficient means of education are provided for them."

State v. Peterman, 32 Ind. App. 665, 70 N. E. 550.

A law requiring a child to be sent to a public, private or parochial school is complied with by employing a private tutor.

"The result to be obtained, and not the means or manner of attaining it, was the goal which the lawmakers were attempting to reach. The law was made for the parent who does not educate his child, and not for the parent who employs a teacher and pays him out of his private purse, and so places within the reach of the child the opportunity and means of acquiring an education equal to that obtainable in the public schools of the state."

Wright v. State, 209 Pac. (Okla.) 179 (1922).

The instruction of a trial court that "in case a parent elects to furnish other means of education, it is his duty under the law to furnish the necessary equipment for said child, and an instructor, competent to instruct his child in the prescribed course of study, as laid down by the state," held erroneous.

"So long as the child's education was not neglected, we think

these parents, under the constitution and laws of this state, had a right to manage and supervise the education of their child, if done in a fitting and proficient manner."

The principle is also supported, as we have already seen, in Meyer v. Nebraska, Pierce v. Society, and Farrington v. Toku-

shige, supra.

It may be stated here that, in the greater number of states, home instruction is recognized by statute; namely in: Arizona, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin. Lischka, Private Schools and State Laws.

5. The state has the right to regulate child labor, but only in dangerous or harmful occupations, and up to reasonable ages.

This has been admitted by the Supreme Court of the United States. Beauchamp v. Sturges, supra; Hammer v. Dagenhart, 247 U. S. 251; Child Labor Tax Case (Bailey v. Drexel), 259 U. S. 20.

In every case reported (as far as every effort has enabled me to discover), in which the question of the constitutionality of child labor laws, on the score of liberty, was raised and decided in favor of the laws, the occupation was dangerous, or the hours were unduly long, or the child was of tender years.

The following, I am morally certain, is a complete list of such cases reported:

People v. Ewer (1892), 141 N. Y. 129, 25, 25 L. R. A. 794,
36 N. E. 4, 38 Am. St. Rep. 788. Exhibition of a child under fourteen as a dancer.

City of N. Y. v. Chelsea Jute Mills (1904), 88 N. Y. S. 1085, 43 Misc. Rep. 266. Child under fourteen.

State v. Shorey (1906), Ore. 396, 86 Pac. 881, 24 L. R. A. N. S. 1121. Children under sixteen in certain callings more than ten hours a day.

Ex parte Spencer (1906), 149 Cal. 396, 86 Pac. 896, 9 Ann. Cas. 1105, 117 Am. St. Rep. 137. No child under fourteen in certain occupations, and no child under sixteen during school hours, if unable to read and write English.

Ex parte Weber (1906), 149 Cal. 392, 86 Pac. 909. Child under sixteen in injurious and dangerous occupation.

Lenahan v. Pittston (1907), 218 Pa. 311, 12 L. R. A. N. S. 461, 67 Atl. 642, 120 Am. St. Rep. 885. Child under fifteen oiling machinery in a coal mine.

Bryant v. Skillman (1908), 76 N. J. L. 45, 69 Atl. 23. Child

under fourteen in manufacturing establishment.

Starnes v. Albion Mfg. Co. (1908), 147 N. C. 556, 61 S. E. 525, 17 L. R. A. N. S. 602, 15 Ann. Cas. 470. Child under twelve in manufacturing establishment.

Stehle v. Jaeger (1908), 220 Pa. 617, 69 Atl. 1116, 14 Ann. Cas. 122. Child under fourteen around dangerous machinery. Inland Steel Co. v. Yedinak (1909), 87 N. E. 229, 172 Ind. 423, 139 Am. St. Rep. 389. Under sixteen, in manufacturing and mercantile establishments, more than ten hours a day or sixty hours a week.

State v. Rose (1910), 125 La. 462, 51 So. 496, 26 L. R. A. N. S. 821. Children under fourteen in mills, factories, etc.

Beauchamp v. Sturges (U. S. S. Ct. 1913), 250 Ill. 303, 95 N. E. 204; affirmed 34 S. Ct. 60, 231 U. S. 320, 58 L. Ed. 245, L. R. A. 1915A 1196. Children under sixteen operating certain machinery.

Green v. Appleton Woolen Mills (1916), 162 Wis. 145, 155
N. W. 958. Minors under sixteen around dangerous machinery.
Commonwealth v. Wormser (1918), 260 Pa. 44, 103 Atl. 500.

Children under sixteen at night in factories.

Terry Dairy Co. v. Nally (1920), 225 S. W. (Ark.) 887. Children under fourteen.

State v. Collins (1924), 198 N. W. 557. Under sixteen, more than ten hours a day.

Kendall v. State (1925), 148 N. E. 367. Under fourteen, in connection with moving picture exhibits.

6. Education is both a necessity and a benefit; but to the extent that it is a mere benefit, the state may not compel it.

"The state can not force a benefit upon a full grown man, of rational mind, against his will." *Tiedeman*, op. cit., No. 52. This is true of parents, as far as the education of their children is a mere benefit to them.

I contend that it is reasonable to hold it also true of children, when education has ceased to be a necessity.

"Children cannot be compelled to take instruction not essential to good citizenship." People v. Stanley, supra.

7. The state may and should promote the public welfare. It does so through education, among other means. But the diffusion of education must not be sought to be accomplished by compulsion at the expense of liberty.

"To sustain the individual freedom of action contemplated by the Constitution, is not to strike down the common good but to exalt it; for surely the good of society as a whole can not be better served than by the preservation against arbitrary restraint of the liberties of its constituent members." Adkins v. Children's Hospital, 261 U. S. 525, 67 L. Ed. 785, 24 A. L. R. 1238, 43 S. Ct. 394.

8. Constitutional Question. Establishing a Precedent.

The extension of compulsory education to the age of sixteen without exceptions, is a wide and unwarranted departure from familiar usage, and sets up a powerful and perilous precedent. If education can be made compulsory to the age of sixteen, it may be attempted to make it compulsory to the age of eighteen, then to the age of twenty, then to the very age of majority.

In testing the constitutionality of a legislative act, it is right and reasonable to inquire whither and how far the departure from long established standards may lead us, and how the sustention of the power claimed may serve as inducement and authority for legislation of still greater scope, still more presumptuous character. Adair v. U. S., 208 U. S. 161; Copage v. Kansas, 236 U. S. 1; Truax v. Raich, 239 U. S. 33; Truax v. Corrigan, 257 U. S. 312; Child Labor Tax Case, 259 U. Ş. 20; Adkins v. Children's Hospital, 261 U. S. 525.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

I hope I have succeeded in establishing the following, by argument and especially by authority:

I. The parental right to control the education of the child is a recognized natural right, unquestionably guaranteed by the Constitution as a part of man's liberty. So great is this right and so extensive this liberty, that, barring what is generally considered as absolutely essential in education—essential for the child and essential for the public welfare—the courts have recognized the parental authority to determine precisely the extent and the manner of the child's education.

The parental right of control includes the right to control the time and the services of the child. It is therefore a property right, which may not be unnecessarily and unduly invaded.

II. The child is not the mere creature of the state. The state cannot do with him as it pleases. The child is also man. He has a liberty of his own. He has a right to be free from restraint, a right to work, a right to acquire property. These rights are guaranteed by the Constitution against improper interference.

III. The state has police power; it has the right, indeed the duty, to promote and protect the public health, the public safety, the public morals, and the general public welfare. But this legislative power is not absolute. It is subject to supervision by the courts. It may not be so exercised as to cripple in any particular the liberty of the individual.

In the matter of the custody and education of children, the state may interfere only where there is manifest warrant and

imperative necessity.

It is imperatively necessary, this day, in this democracy, that every child, for his own sake as well as for the sake of the Republic, have a minimum elementary education. This much, but no more, the state can compel. It cannot compel what is no longer necessary but merely beneficial.

Correlative with compulsory education is the regulation of child labor. Child labor may not be regulated except as a matter of clearly required protection. A child, who has acquired an elementary education, may not be prohibited from engaging in any harmless and useful occupation.

IV. The legislature has no authority to make compulsory an education not essentially requisite for good citizenship. A good elementary education is sufficient for this purpose.

But any measure making education compulsory, without exceptions, to the age of sixteen, demands more than a good elementary education—more than is essentially requisite for good citizenship. The legislature, at least, has neither the competency nor the power to say that the accepted elementary education is insufficient for essential good citizenship.

Therefore, the legislature has no authority to make education compulsory to the age of sixteen years without exceptions.

Now, if and when the legislature compels more education than it has authority to compel, it interferes with the rights of liberty and property of both parent and child, interferes unreasonably, arbitrarily, ruthlessly.

In his opinion in the Child Labor Tax Case, supra, Chief Justice Taft said:

"The good sought in unconstitutional legislation is an insidious feature because it leads citizens and legislators of good purpose to promote it without thought of the serious breach it will make in the ark of our covenant or the harm which will come from breaking down recognized standards."

The best slogan for the true champions of universal education in America would be: "FREE ATTENDANCE OF FREE SCHOOLS BEST BEFITS A FREE PEOPLE."

CHARLES N. LISCHKA.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

MARQUETTE HONORS RECTOR OF CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY

Recently Marquette University of Milwaukee conferred upon Rt. Rev. Msgr. James H. Ryan, Rector of the Catholic University of America, the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

Msgr. Ryan delivered the principal address at the Marquette convocation. He spoke on "The Neo-Scholastic Movement in Philosophy."

Discussing American philosophy, Msgr. Ryan said:

"Today we are in full march toward a realistic point of view, achieved not as an importation from Europe, but as the result of a profound realization that only in some form of realistic philosophy can the outstanding accomplishments of twentieth century science be made to harmonize with the demands of a logically constructed universe."

It is evident, Monsignor Ryan said, that the New Scholasticism will have to face and solve many difficulties, of method, of approach, and of conclusion, before it can be said to have progressed far on the road to the position it should hold in American thought.

"What contemporary philosophy wishes to know is—What is the attitude of the New Scholasticism to modern science?" he added. "Is it but a reflex of the mediaeval attitude continued in the modern mind, or are we justified in saying that it is in accord with the intelligent position which the leaders of other philosophies have assumed?

"As a matter of mere declaration of faith, may I affirm that the New Scholasticism is quite ready to accept and to incorporate into its growing synthesis the proved results of science, no matter from what quarter they come. Neo-Scholastic workers have themselves made important contributions to the store of scientific knowledge. Neo-Scholastic philosophers are busy working such contributions into the framework of their system. Where scientific fact has disproved mediaeval theory, we have sacrificed theory to fact. No Neo-Scholastic who truly represents our position stands out for an acceptance of the physics or chemistry of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. However, we have not and are not likely to surrender bag and baggage to

the mechanistic science of the nineteenth century. No forward-looking thinker today, no matter what his school, will do so."

CATHOLIC SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN CONNECTICUT

According to the report of the Connecticut Board of Education there were 49,902 pupils registered in the "Parochial and Other Roman Catholic Schools" of that state for the school year 1926-27. Other facts in regard to these schools were: Average Daily Attendance of Pupils, 44,643; Actual Days School Was in Session—Average, 182,48; Number of Teachers Employed, 1,108.

RADIO FOR EXTENSION WORK

Colorado State Teachers College has recently installed a onethousand-watt radio station, KFKA, and under the direction of the Extension Department is beginning a series of experiments in teaching by radio.

HELPS FOR TEACHERS

Newton, Mass., public schools have achieved such results in improving the health of the school children by the use of a "school health plan" that the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has made a study of the plan and is disseminating the results of that study by the publication of a special monograph. Diocesan superintendents and Sisters who are interested may secure a copy of the monograph by writing to the School Health Bureau, Welfare Division, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York.

NEW SUPERIOR GENERAL OF THE CHRISTIAN BROTHERS

Brother Adrien, the recently elected Superior General of the Brothers of the Christian Schools, succeeds his own brother in that office. As a member of the General administration of his order, he has frequently paid visits to the United States, an important part of his charge consisting as it does of five flourishing provinces. So long ago as 1913 he was elected assistant to the Superior General with authority over those provinces as well as the ones in Cuba and Mexico. He is credited with having done much for the development of his historic Institute in America.

With his late brother he entered the brotherhood as a boy in Paris, where most of his life as a religious was spent. In 1904,

following the iniquitous law which suppressed the Institute in France, the Brothers went to Belgium, whither the headquarters of the community was removed.

NATIVE CHINESE ORDER OF BROTHERS FORMED

A congregation of native Chinese Brothers, known as the Little Brothers of Saint John the Baptist, has been founded by the Right Reverend Bishop Belchior Suen, native Prefect Apostolic of Lyhsien, China.

The Brothers wear a monastic habit and their rule is very severe. A vow for one year is taken after the candidates have completed two years' novitiate. Later they renew their vows in perpetuity.

PRIZES WON BY CATHOLIC PUPILS

More than half the prizes awarded by the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York for the best essays on "My Relations to the Government" have been awarded to pupils of Catholic schools. The competition was open to students of elementary and high schools. More than 200,000 children participated in the contest, which was conducted under the auspices of the Board of Education.

WORLD'S LIBRARY AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CONGRESS

The first World's Library and Bibliographical Congress will be held in Rome and Venice, June 15 to 30. International schemes of classification, international cataloging rules, scholarships and fellowships, exchange of librarians, library relations and bibliography are among the subjects to be discussed.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC EDUCATION MEETING IN TOLEDO, JUNE 24

The twenty-sixth annual meeting of the National Catholic Educational Association will be held at Toledo, Ohio, for three days beginning June 24, it has been announced by the Rt. Rev. Francis W. Howard, Bishop of Covington and secretary general of the Association.

ATTENDANCE IN NEGRO COLLEGES

In 1916 there were 1,643 students of college grade in the negro educational institutions of this country. In 1927 there were eight times as many—13,646. The prediction is made that the

number will have increased to 25,000 by 1930. More than half of these students are enrolled in race denominational schools. Of the ninety-nine such institutions, two-thirds are doing college work.

ARTICLES ON CATHOLIC COLLEGES

Columbia, national organ of the Knights of Columbus, has inaugurated a series of articles on Catholic Colleges and Universities. An illustrated article on Creighton University, prepared by Frank P. Fogarty, will appear in the May number of Columbia.

INCREASE OF VOCATIONS IN PITTSBURGH

The report of the Superintendent of Schools of the Diocese of Pittsburgh, which has recently been published, is an exhaustive study of the diocesan school situation. One part of the report deals with vocations, showing that in the four years following the vocational campaign conducted in the schools in 1924 the number of boys and young men adopted as students for the priesthood of the diocese increased 85 per cent, while in the four years before the campaign the number increased only 35 per cent.

HIGHER INTEREST EVIDENCED BY MEN IN MUSIC CAREER

Male students are showing increased interest in music, the enrollment at the Marquette University College of Music shows. It is the opinion of Dean Liborius Semmann that the increase is general, and that on the whole more American boys are studying music now than ever before.

"America has been too commercial; time will remedy that," says Dean Semmann. "In Europe the musician has a recognized status. Before the great wave of orchestra popularity, the male musicians of the United States were looked up to as the poet—'a precious darling.'

"A great field filled with opportunities is now opening to thorough musicians. It is the direct result of the instrumentation of music. Throughout the country hundreds of student bands and orchestras have been organized, stimulating an early love of music. Standards of music will be set by the schools in the future. A graduate of a college of music always has an advantage in securing a position as an instrument instructor. Every graduate of our college has received a high-salaried position."

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

An Outline of Recent European History, 1815-1927, by Clarence Perkins, Ph.D., College Book Co., Columbus, Ohio, 1927. Pp. 92.

Professor Perkins of the University of North Dakota has revised and brought up to date his excellent outline of recent European history which is based upon C. D. Hazen, Europe Since 1815, J. S. Schapiro, Modern and Contempory European History, Carlton Haves, Political and Social History of Modern Europe (Vol. II), and Flick, Modern World History. The work is well organized under such main headings as The Metternich Era, The Industrial Revolution, Revolutions of 1848. The Second Napoleonic Empire, Unification of Italy, Prussia and Germany, Social Forces, Growth of Democracy in Great Britain, Latin Europe (1870-1914), Teutonic Europe (1871-1914), Russia in the Nineteenth Century, Rise of the Balkan States, Expansion of Europe, International Relations of 1871-1914, World War, Peace Conference and Treaties, International Relations since 1919, and Chief Nations since the War. Under each of these main divisions there is a well-thoughtout outline with selected, specific references to the best secondary authorities. In addition, there are special topics with short bibliographies which include current American magazine articles for the more recent years.

This manual is intended primarily for college courses where a year is given to the study of the past century in Europe, but it should aid the teacher of a freshman general survey course in European history in making assignments of special topics in the later period. Again the high school teacher will find this outline a help to self-improvement in the way of deeper understanding and wider reading.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

The Development of Children's Number Ideas in the Primary Grades, by W. A. Brownell, The University of Chicago Press, 1928. Pp. xiii+241.

This monograph is a substantial contribution to the rapidly increasing volume of material dealing with the technique of teaching arithmetic. The author has put the primary teachers

of the country under a three-fold debt of gratitude to him for the data presented regarding the early phases in the development of number ideas, for the conclusions drawn concerning the teacher's problem, and for the suggestions offered for the solving of that problem.

Although educators have not been slow to condemn methods which substitute form for substance, or which build upon the insecure foundation of premature abstractions, as being unsound in principle, yet the evidence herein submitted is convincing proof that our practice in the matter of teaching number, at least, is

in open violation of the principles involved.

We have an abundance of literature emphasizing the fact that our boys and girls are not developing the power to make a satisfactory attack upon number, resulting in losses both in accuracy and in speed. In this monograph we find objective evidence pointing to causes for this condition. (a) Between the immature powers and the undeveloped abilities of the pre-school child on the one hand and the perfection of the number system of which he must gain control on the other hand, there is a wide and a very real gap. (b) The child has been left, for the most part, to find his own way across this gap. That the teacher has been of little or no service to him in this matter is shown by the unsteady and the uncertain progress that is made from year to year. The directions given to him from time to time, the skills demanded of him, the tests-which, after all, merely indicate his progress in acquiring these skills—none of these things have made clear to him the way he is to go. (c) The teacher seems not to grasp the distinction between the way a child learns a number truth and the way an adult uses that same truth. (d) A lack of understanding on the part of the teacher of the existence of distinct planes of development, of the several steps leading to each plane, as well as of the real function of drill in the educative process, is amply attested by the evidence submitted.

Heretofore investigators have been so intent on listing the facts of arithmetic, on noting the difficulties the child encounters in mastering these facts, on enumerating the several skills and abilities that must be acquired, that they have neglected the far more important consideration of the way in which these facts are mastered, of the manner in which these skills and abilities are acquired. The material in this monograph showing the successions.

sive steps in the mental processes by which these things are done is an outstanding contribution to the literature on teaching arithmetic.

The data showing the successive steps in developing the power to deal with column addition will serve to illustrate the value of this study to the busy classroom teacher. Passing from the most elementary knowledge of concrete number, the child ascends by means of clearly defined steps to each successive plane of ability. The second plane, additive combinations, is reached by means of four steps: (1) counting; (2) partial counting; (3) grouping: (4) multiplication and conversion. At the second step the work of grouping is begun. While this power is being developed, counting is used only as an aid; hence the term, partial counting. When the third step is reached, counting should be discouraged, and grouping used instead. The third plane is likewise reached by means of four steps: (1) partial counting: (2) grouping: (3) multiplication and conversion: (4) meaningful habituation. It will be noted that counting persists until the second step in the third plane is reached. The chief concern of the teacher should be to develop in the child the power and the desire to substitute more and more mature methods for his less mature ones until he finally reaches the last step, meaningful habituation. When this is done, drill may be called upon to fulfill its legitimate function, to increase efficiency in the most mature method of dealing with number.

Since the investigation was not begun until school had been in session two months, no opportunity was afforded to study the very first steps taken by the child in acquiring a knowledge of number. Other limitations are recognized by the author and clearly pointed out wherever they occur. He has been especially careful to separate factors involved in a given situation wherever they tend to confuse the result. As might be expected in a work of this nature, the evidence corroborates numberless truths previously discovered.

SISTER M. ALMA.

The Holy Sacrifice of the Mass, by Martin J. Scott, S.J. New York: P. J. Kenedy & Sons, 1928. Pp. 176. Price \$1.50.

It is a wholesome and a heartening thing—this reawakening of Catholic consciousness to the riches of the liturgical life. So

widespread is the movement brought to a unity in our country some few years ago by the monks of St. John's Abbey, Collegeville, Minn., that the tiny seed then modestly planted is already bearing a continuously gratifying harvest. No longer an unintelligible or sealed book, the Missal has found its way into many a school and college curriculum, and liturgical study clubs and retreats are becoming increasingly popular. The campaign culminates fittingly in the weekly explanations of the liturgy released by the N. C. W. C. To such a movement aimed at the restoration of all things in Christ, the Catholic educator can ill afford to be indifferent. His attitude must be nothing short of enthusiasm.

A more recent publication on the Holy Sacrifice is that of the popular and prolific Father Scott, S.J. Living up to his well-established reputation, he speaks again in a style of crystal clarity with not an ambiguity throughout. Written obviously for the unitiated, the work is meant to serve as a primer in evaluating the nature of worship, the significance of the altar and its appurtenances, and the Mass itself, to which latter phase less than seventy pages are devoted. The classic letter of Cardinal Mercier addressed to his priests five days before his death makes a striking preface.

Father Scott is at his best, his invincible self, when exclusively apologetical. His interpretation of lights and language, his distinction between essentials and accidentals, his vindication of the employment of the Latin tongue, his defense of public worship with "its man-made trappings," replete with telling analogy, are all that one could hope for in so elementary a treatment. Would that his guidance were elsewhere as commendable. It is not the monstrance but the lunula that is reserved with the ciborium in the tabernacle. His weakness for mystical and symbolical interpretations, valid only when void of contradiction in accord with tradition and common sense, manifests itself not infrequently. Ultimately and in most cases the one sound explanation has been the Church's fidelity to ancient forms. Assuredly the Mass is Golgotha renewed, but what a pity that a strained popular piety must so often go astray and violate its dramatic unity. In his attempt to reconcile the priestly actions step by step with the events of the Passion, Father Scott unfortunately falls a sorry victim to this unpardonable practice. Who essays such parallel must soon run awry of consistency and liturgy. Why must the sacrificing priest, nevermore the Alter Christus, enact the rôle of the infamous Judas when in invocation he kisses the relics of the sanctified, or the cowardly Pilate when for historically practical and mystical reasons he washes his hands. And the "Dominus vobiscum"! One shudders to read that "this may piously remind us of Christ's turning to Peter and by His glance converting the Apostle who had denied Him." The anxious pastor may possibly justify a cursory inventory of his scattered congregation but a less generous rubric reminds him of another obligation—"demissis ad terram oculis" ("with eyes cast down"). In a word, it is high time for a titurgically aroused and enlightened people to part company forever with the unjustifiable extravagances and excrescences that may rather than enhance the beauties of the Eucharistic Sacrifice.

HENRY J. GEBHARD.

Modern Physics, by Charles E. Dull, Head of Science Department, West Side High School, Newark, N. J. Cloth. Pages viii+778. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1929.

In the matter of presentation, choice of material, and pedagogical aptitude, "Modern Physics"—a textbook written to replace the text Mr. Dull wrote a few years ago—is deserving of commendation. The style is compact and direct. Lucidity is secured by prefacing each chapter with a vocabulary of new or technical terms with definitions. Due emphasis is given to the relative importance of the many topics discussed. Except that definitions and principles are set in italics, the type is uniform in size for all topics, leaving the teacher free to place emphasis where it is most desired and removing the impression that whatever does not appear in bold-faced type is unimportant. Diagrams, supplemented by an unusually large number of halftones depicting modern situations, involving physical principles, add to the value of the text, and arouse interest.

The author has followed the usual method of dividing the subject matter into the main divisions of mechanics, heat, sound, light, magnetism, and electricity, which he discusses in the order listed. The mechanics of fluids are first studied, leaving the more difficult topics of force and motion for later study—a procedure followed in many high schools at the present time.

Each chapter ends with a summary, a list of questions, and, where the nature of the topic warrants, a set of problems. The questions are stimulating and are cleverly devised to develop thought on the part of the students. There is a marked effort to connect the science and facts of physics with the incidents of every-day life, thus vitalizing this subject which is contributing so much to material progress. Additional problems are placed in an appendix, providing an adequate number to serve as review material.

The historical aspect of the subject has not been overlooked. In many cases a historical reference introduces the chapter. Photographs of leading physicists, with biographical data appended, have been inserted in the chapters exposing the principles, to whose development they contributed.

In general, the author has been consistent in following the plan he outlines in the preface: (1) some historical reference or familiar illustration is used to introduce the topic; (2) the principle or fact is then stated and explained in language with which the beginner is familiar; (3) enough practical applications are then used to develop the principle and to show the student how it touches his daily life; (4) the illustrations, which are used in profusion, are so closely linked with the context that they are useful in clarifying the more difficult parts and in enlarging the scope of the subject.

SISTER M. DAFROSE, O.S.D.

Books Received

Educational

American Cardinal Readers: First Year Reading, Part Two; Teachers' Manual for Book One. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1929. Pp. 351. Price 50 cents.

Anderson, Lou Eastwood, B.S.: Basketball for Women, with Special Reference to the Training of Teachers. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xiv+129. Price, \$1.86.

Branom, M. E.: The Branom Practice Tests in Elementary Geography. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. 168. Price, 68 cents. Burton Civics Test. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.; The World Book Company.

Hauch, Edward P.: German Idiom List. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xi+98.

Hawaii, Territory of: Biennial Report, 1927-1928, of the Department of Public Instruction.

Myers, Alonzo Franklin; Bird, Ossian Clinton: Health and Physical Education for Elementary Schools. Garden City: Doubleday, Doran & Company, Inc., 1928. Pp. 342. Price, \$1.50.

Orleans, Joseph B., A.M.; Orleans, Jacob S., Ph.D.: Orleans Geometry Prognosis Test. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: The World Book Company, 1929. Price, \$1.70, for a set of 25.

Payson, Verna A.; Haley, Alice H.: Adult Education in Home Making. New York: The Century Company, 1929. Pp. xvii+251. Price, \$2.25.

Pyle, William H.: Training Children. New York: The Century Company, 1929. Pp. ix+206. Price, \$1.75.

Rainey, Homer P.: Public School Finance. New York: The Century Company, 1929. Pp. xix+385. Price, \$3.00.

Uhl, Willis L., and Others: The Supervision of Secondary Subjects. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1929. Pp. xvi+673.

University of Iowa: Studies in Character, Volume 11, Number 1; Franklin, Samuel P., Ph.D.: Measurement of the Comprehension Difficulty of the Precepts and Parables of Jesus. Monographs in Education, 1st Series, Number 10, December 1, 1928: The Course of Study in Written Composition for the Elementary Grades. Studies in Education, Volume iv, Number 8: Lakin, Fiske Roberts: The Administrative Effect of Reorganization in Small High Schools in West Virginia. Iowa City, Ia.: The University.

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Anna Louise, Sister: Poetry for Junior Students. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1929. Pp. 152. Price, 90 cents.

Best, Susie M.: Steer for New Shores. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy Company, 1929. Pp. 215. Price, 90 cents.

Black, Newton Henry; Davis, Harvey Nathaniel: New Practical Physics. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. x+645.

Burback, Rev. J. H.: The Catholic Religion Illustrated and Explained for the Child and Convert. West Allis, Wisc.: The Author.

Kingsley, Charles: *Hypatia*, abridged and edited by Mabel Goddard. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1929. Pp. xxii+476.

McGowan, Ellen Beers, M.A.: Soap Bubbles. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1928. Pp. viii+248. Price, 80 cents.

The Quaker Oats Company, School Health Service: Uncle Sam's Farm, A Map Project. Chicago: 80 East Jackson Street. Free to Teachers.

Schorling, Raleigh; Clark, John R.; Lindell, Selma A.: *Modern Algebra*, two books. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1929. First Course, pp. 391. Second Course, pp. 464.

Serl, Emma: Everyday Doings in Healthville, a Health Reader, New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1929. Pp. 128.

Sister Servants of the Immaculate Heart of Mary: My Mass Book. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1929. Pp. 79. Price, 88 cents.

Smith, E. Ehrlick; Lowe, Orton; Simpson, I. Jewell: Adventures in Reading, Books for Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Years. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran and Company, Inc., 1928. Fourth Year, pp. 403; price, 80 cents. Fifth Year, pp. 431; price, 84 cents. Sixth Year, pp. 439; price, 88 cents.

Spalding, Henry S., S.J.: Social Problems and Agencies, New and Enlarged Edition. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1929. Pp. xxii+590. Price, \$2.50.

General

Heagney, Rev. H. J.: The Testing of Al Bascomz. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1929. Pp. 164. Price, \$1.25.

Hickey, R. P., S.H., Ph.D.: Catholic Influence on Longfellow.

Kirkwood, Mo.: Maryhurst Normal Press, 1928. Pp. 334. Price, \$1.50.

Moffatt, Rev. J. E., S.J.: *The Sanity of Sanctity*. New York: Benziger Brothers, 1929. Price, \$1.50.

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